

Eastern Illinois University

## The Keep

---

Plan B Papers

Student Theses & Publications

---

1-1-1965

### How Much Education for Whom

Elizabeth C. Kern

Follow this and additional works at: [https://thekeep.eiu.edu/plan\\_b](https://thekeep.eiu.edu/plan_b)

---

#### Recommended Citation

Kern, Elizabeth C., "How Much Education for Whom" (1965). *Plan B Papers*. 433.  
[https://thekeep.eiu.edu/plan\\_b/433](https://thekeep.eiu.edu/plan_b/433)

This Dissertation/Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by the Student Theses & Publications at The Keep. It has been accepted for inclusion in Plan B Papers by an authorized administrator of The Keep. For more information, please contact [tabruns@eiu.edu](mailto:tabruns@eiu.edu).

HOW MUCH EDUCATION FOR WHOM

(TITLE)

BY

Elizabeth C. Kern

**PLAN B PAPER**

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR  
THE DEGREE MASTER OF SCIENCE IN EDUCATION  
AND PREPARED IN COURSE

Education 581

IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL, EASTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY,  
CHARLESTON, ILLINOIS

1965  
YEAR

I HEREBY RECOMMEND THIS PLAN B PAPER BE ACCEPTED AS  
FULFILLING THIS PART OF THE DEGREE, M.S. IN ED.

*August 5/1/65*

DATE

ADVISER

*8/5/65*

DATE

DEPARTMENT HEAD

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter		Page
I.	INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
	Statement of Problem	
	Purpose of the Study	
	Definition of Terms	
	Method of Procedure	
II.	EDUCATION IN ENGLAND THROUGH 1944 . . . . .	3
	Education Prior to 1833	
	Education from 1833 to 1918	
	Education from 1918 to 1944	
III.	EFFECTS OF THE 1944 ACT . . . . .	10
	Effective Power Given to Secure	
	A National Policy	
	Old Division of Elementary and Higher	
	Education Replaced	
	Compulsory School Attendance	
	Secondary Education Now Offered	
IV.	NEW DIRECTIONS . . . . .	13
	Easing Off of "Eleven-Plus"	
	"Profile" Coming Into Use	
V.	SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS . . . . .	16
	BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	20

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Statement of the Problem

More than half a million British children at the age of eleven are ending their primary education this spring. Since they were five, these children have attended local neighborhood schools where the clever and the slow, the average and the plodders, have shared common classrooms and experiences.

There are three types of publicly maintained secondary schools in England: grammar schools, secondary modern schools, and secondary technical schools. Objective tests are given to the pupils at about 11 years of age to determine which secondary school will follow primary schooling.

In 1900 not one child in seventy could normally expect to enter a secondary grammar school; now about one out of four is able to enter this kind of school, but every normal child has a chance of some kind of secondary school. The question arises: How much and what kind of education shall be offered which British children?

#### Purpose of the Study

It is the purpose of this paper to present (compare) current British viewpoints as to how much and what kind of education should be accessible and for what groups of pupils.

### Definition of Terms

The terms listed below will be defined in the following manner:

"The Eleven-plus" - an IQ measurement plus tests in arithmetic and English composition.

Infant schools - primary schools for ages 5 to 7.

Junior schools - primary schools for ages 7 to 11.

Grammar schools - secondary schools for university entrance.

Modern schools - secondary schools for general education with a practical bias.

Technical schools - secondary schools for an education related to industry, commerce, and agriculture.

Comprehensive schools - secondary schools with all three types: grammar, modern, and technical.

### Method of Procedure

After appropriate literature consisting of histories of education and such periodicals as Comparative Education Review and British Journal of Educational Studies had been reviewed, this material was organized in chronological order and then presented so as to determine both the nature and the extent of education to be offered to British children.

## CHAPTER II

### EDUCATION IN ENGLAND THROUGH 1944

While England is a late entrant in public education, this nation is certainly no novice in education itself. Two of England's well-known universities had their beginnings in the Middle Ages. For a few centuries these universities were the exclusive preserve of the rich. In the nineteenth century there began some scholarships which offered opportunities to poor boys. While one may conclude from records at the two universities that a large number of young gentlemen by-passed academic learning, those who wished to do serious work had the opportunity.

Far into the second half of the nineteenth century, however, the education of the people as a whole was shamefully neglected. There continued to be two divisions--the gentlemen who should be well educated, and the rest who should be kept in order. In the first decades of the nineteenth century, the lot of the poor was even worse than in the eighteenth century. The old landowners had been generally more sympathetic to their peasants than the capitalist bourgeoisie was to his workers. This was true because the impersonal form of technical mass production removed the employer from the employee.

The only schools that were established for the working class (by Parliament in 1722) were really workhouses. These were

worse than today's prisons in terms of food and health.<sup>1</sup>

Before this there were village schools, and in 1699 the Society for the Propagation of Christian Knowledge set up many charity schools. In 1780 Robert Raikes began the Sunday School movement.

Men of Christian conscience were struck by the educational and spiritual plight of the poor. In 1808 Quaker Robert Lancaster started the foundation of the British and Foreign School Society. It was so successful that the Anglican Church began to feel its social obligation. It supported its minister Andrew Bell, who had founded an orphanage in Madras and who felt that the missionary care given to the Indians might be extended to the poor Christians at home. In 1811 the National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church was established.

In order to take care of the increasing number of school children with a minimum in both cost and teachers, the monitorial system was used. Since Lancaster had no adult assistants or money to hire helpers, he organized a corps of the older boys to take charge of the rest and instruct them under his supervision.

Regardless of the faults of this new venture in education, some wider circles began to ponder over the education of the poor. Many of the working parents were unable to take care of their infants since they were both employed. From this fact came, on non-denominational religious grounds, the infant-school movement.

---

<sup>1</sup>Robert Ulich, The Education of the Nations. (Cambridge, Mass.; Harvard University Press, 1961), p. 92.

Robert Owen (1771-1858) founded the first school which provided free education for workers' children of from five to ten years. One of Owen's teachers, J. Buchanan, built a similar establishment at Westminster, which in turn motivated Samuel Wilderspin to devote his energy to an infant school at Spitalfields, London, and to the foundation of the Infant School Society. In 1825 there were fifty-five infant schools in England.

The whole problem of schooling of the poor was discussed somewhat similarly to the liberation of the slaves in the United States. Religious jealousies were the main obstacle to the creation of a general system of public education; the Established Church claimed that education was its right, as had the Catholic Church also claimed education as its prerogative.

Even today the Church wields a power over educational legislation that is way out of proportion to the number of churchgoers; this power is due largely to the fact that, in matters spiritual, there is no effective organization to take its place. In a storm even an old roof is better than none.<sup>2</sup>

In the nineteenth century "public opinion did not consider any education worthwhile if it did not have a firmly doctrinal basis and were not offered by convinced, practicing Christians."<sup>3</sup>

In 1833 the principle of governmental non-interference in educational matters was broken by the first reformed Parliament. Dr. Bell's National Society under the Established Church and the nondenominational British and Foreign School Society received a

---

<sup>2</sup>Robert Ulich, The Education of Nations. (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1961), p. 111.

<sup>3</sup>Edmund J. King, Other Schools and Ours. (New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1958), p. 78.



state grant-in-aid of £ 20,000. In 1839 a special central body in the form of a committee of the Privy Council was set up under the directorship of James Kay Shuttleworth to consider all matters affecting the education of the people, to distribute government grants, and to arrange for inspection of schools, not only for school buildings but also for the training of teachers and school inspectors. This committee was the start of the later Ministry of Education.

Important school legislation was passed in 1870 and 1876. The Forster Elementary Act (1870) set up publicly elected "School Boards" besides the voluntary (mostly church-connected) organizations. The school boards were to see that there were sufficient places for all children between the ages of five and twelve to attend. The 1876 Act made education compulsory, though not tuition-free, up to the age of twelve.

In 1902, "Local Education Authorities" were established and took over the responsibilities for elementary schools previously controlled by local boards which had been in effect for the last thirty years. A few years prior to 1902 legislation became the cornerstone of the present educational system. Through it, church schools which had been denied local taxes (although sometimes they were given per capita grants from central funds) were permitted to obtain running expenses from local taxation (rates).

Public provision of secondary education started in England under the Act of 1902. Education after 1902 consisted of three separate systems.

The elementary school system was compulsory between the ages of 5 and 14 and free. Thus the masses were provided with education which ended abruptly at 14 years.

The secondary school system was for those who could pay the fees and for a select group on scholarships. This education led to a "certificate" and to clerical occupations. About five per cent in this group could proceed to the Universities.

For the upper classes there was an independent system of Preparatory and "Public" schools, which were actually private, were very expensive, and led usually to the traditional Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

The British emphasis on local autonomy and individual differences led to a highly-varied educational structure, which before World War II, could hardly be considered a system. It followed a class stratification with elementary for the lower classes and secondary for the upper classes.

World War I forced the English nation into compulsory military service--a measure England had always proudly avoided. As a compensation for accepting the duty to fight and die on the battlefields of France, the people demanded a further advance in public education. They insisted on a change from the class-structured school system with more than ninety-five per cent of the population confined to elementary training to a school system which would bring the more advanced forms of education, except the universities, into the reach of the able youth.

The Education Act of 1918, commonly called the Fisher Act after the scholar and historian H. A. L. Fisher, then President of the Board of Education, raised the upper age of compulsory attendance, without exceptions, to the end of the term in which the pupil reached his fourteenth birthday; it charged local education authorities with the duty of providing, in senior departments or central schools, advanced and practical instruction for the older children; and it provided for part-time compulsory attendance at day continuation schools for boys and girls between 14 and 18 who had given up full-time schooling. The post-war financial depression, among other factors, led to the postponement of the operation of the last provision.

However, the Fisher Act also retained the old concept of the secondary school as "liberal" in contrast to vocational studies.

"A Secondary School was defined as a Day or Boarding School offering to each of its scholars, up to and beyond the age of sixteen, a general education, physical, mental, and moral and aiming at the development of the whole of the faculties of the pupil, rather than confining this development to a particular channel or fitting a boy or girl to enter business in a subordinate capacity."<sup>4</sup>

In 1926 the Hadow Report proposed a complete educational break for all children at the age of 11 and their transfer to separate schools for older children. It also recommended the raising of the school-leaving age to 15 without exemption, so as to ensure at least four years' progressive schooling for all children over 11.

---

<sup>4</sup>Robert Ulich, The Education of Nations. (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1961), p. 117.

In 1938 the Spens Report proposed an alternative type of secondary school admitting children at 11. This was the technical high school. There were already in existence a number of junior technical schools which recruited boys and girls from elementary schools at 13.

In the 20 years after the first world war broader development had taken place in the increase in the number of publicly provided secondary schools giving a grammar school education, the development of separate "senior" schools for other older children from elementary schools, and the advance of technical education.

### CHAPTER III

#### EFFECTS OF THE 1944 ACT

The Education Act of 1944 sharply modified the British system in the direction of a more nearly equal chance for every child. It provided the first comprehensive system in British education. Under it, the British system is neither centralized in the hands of the government, nor is it decentralized; rather it is a partnership between national and local authorities in which the central government is responsible for reorganizing the school on a national basis and for providing funds for building and equipment, but leaves in local hands such matters as curriculum, textbooks and quality of instruction.

Under the Act of 1944, British education is organized in three successive stages. The first is primary education for children between the ages of 5 and 11 or 12. This is followed by a system of secondary schools lasting four or more years. The third stage is defined as Further Education and means all forms of education, other than university studies, following the secondary stage. It includes vocational training given in technical and commercial colleges or in colleges of music and art. It may be adult education or recreational activities; leisure activities in recreational institutes, community centers, and in voluntary associations may also be termed Further Education. The independent schools are allowed to continue as a separate system--subject to inspection and in some

cases receiving grants from the government. The third stage is defined only as "Further Education."

Aside from the independent schools, all British secondary education is provided in publicly maintained grammar, technical, and "modern" schools, of which the latter two are new developments in England.

While the three types of secondary education have a common curriculum (except for such subjects as foreign languages) for the first two years, they differ afterward according to their different purposes and the different caliber of their students.

The grammar school has been reserved for those students who have been successful in qualifying and who are college material.

Before 1944 Great Britain had junior technical schools which offered two or three year courses beyond the elementary schools. Students were starting these junior technical schools at age thirteen. The 1944 Act changed these into technical schools with entrance age possible at eleven, and extended the length of years. Now students who complete the technical schools at 16 may proceed to universities, technical colleges, or employment. In both grammar and technical schools a General Certificate of Education is granted to graduates who pass a thorough state administered examination.

The modern schools are an effort to provide a secondary education for the slower pupils who have failed to qualify for entrance into grammar or technical high school. Students in the modern schools are unlikely either to qualify for a General Certificate or to go to college or university. While the modern school is not vocational, its emphasis is on student interests.

There are also non-selective comprehensive schools which provide all types of secondary education. In 1964 there were about 140 comprehensive schools in England.

In 1944 Britain set up an "eleven-plus exam," classification by ability and aptitude. This test was considered the fairest way to channel children into secondary schools geared to their abilities.

As a result of the postwar bulge of population, the selection at eleven has been getting steadily more competitive. Many parents object to their children's being excluded from the advantage of English upper-class schooling. The cost of living and taxes since World War II have risen so that many parents cannot afford to send their children to a private school if they have failed to qualify for grammar school.

It would seem that this arbitrary division of children is one of the bitterest controversies in British education. Not only have parents objected to the channeling, but they have been joined by psychologists and politicians.

## CHAPTER IV

### NEW DIRECTIONS

The Labor Party, with its doctrinaire belief in equality of opportunity, has pledged to work for abolition of the eleven-plus. In March, 1964, the London County Council (1300 schools, 42,500 pupils) dropped the one-shot exam in favor of a whole-child "profile" compiled in the primary school years. The results will place primary graduates in seven standardized groups. Parents will be allowed to nominate any two London secondary schools, although the "profile" will make the final decision. School officials have abolished the exam in Essex, Leicestershire, and Manchester.

The Reverend Arthur Morton, director of the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, says that the "eleven-plus" is the invention of the devil. Labor Party Leader Harold Wilson argues that a child's future should not be decided by how many butterflies are in the tummy one cold Saturday morning in February.<sup>5</sup>

Perhaps the strongest argument against the "eleven-plus" is that it does not test ability or determination to work. In addition to the lack of determining such necessary qualities, much depends upon the physical and emotional state of the child during the two or three days in which the test is given. There is adminis-

---

<sup>5</sup>"Minus Eleven-Plus," TIME, March, 13, 1964. p. 71.



tered another chance at it at age thirteen. This is not too helpful since many times all the choice schools have no vacancies.

Then, the problem of changing the system with its eleven-plus exam has several other problems. One is to find the necessary number of teachers to staff additional schools with broader curricula. Another is to find the necessary ground, inside big industrial cities, on which to build the badly needed new buildings. There is fear in some teachers' groups that the comprehensive system would put a brake on rapid learning and that it would also add to the burden of an already overworked profession.

Though there are still many social and economic inequalities, more social changes have taken place in England during the last fifty years than most bloody revolutions elsewhere were able to accomplish. Since 1944, even much social revolution has been quietly engineered and consolidated.<sup>6</sup>

Fundamentally, the British believe that every person is entitled to attempt a satisfactory way of life. The "hands off" tradition is very powerful. Minorities do get a chance to develop, because disagreement has always been encouraged. The British are unwilling to destroy ancient buildings, archaic roads, old machinery, or anything that still works.

W. P. Alexander sums up the English system by saying:<sup>7</sup>

We believe that the English system of education has the greatest possible value in a free and democratic

---

<sup>6</sup>Edmund James King. Other Schools and Ours. (New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1958). p. 72.

<sup>7</sup>W. P. Alexander. Education in England. (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1954). p. 72.

nation, but let it not be thought that for these reasons we believe it could ever become a pattern to be adopted by other nations. The English system of education is the result of growth. It is appropriate to this country. Some of the principles on which it is based may have application elsewhere, but it is unlikely that the total pattern could be operated in any other country as it is unlikely that the total pattern of any other country would be acceptable or appropriate to the needs of this country.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY

England has always been concerned with education, but for the greater part England was concerned only with education of those who either by their own initiative or by family direction chose to pursue the scholarly path.

Early in the eighteenth century, some attempt was made to provide some instruction for the children of poor parents. However, not until 1870 did legislation see that there were sufficient places for all children between the ages of five and twelve to attend. The 1876 Act made education compulsory, though not tuition-free, up to the age of twelve.

The 1902 legislation became the cornerstone of the present educational system in the fact that it granted church schools running expenses from local taxation.

The Fisher Act (1918) abolished, with small restrictions, fees for elementary schools. The leaving age was raised to fourteen.

The 1944 Education Act established the Comprehensive schools which included both Secondary Modern and grammar schools.

While the "eleven-plus" exam was considered a just solution by its originators, it has proved to be a source of bitter conflict. In March, 1964, the London County Council dropped the one-shot exam in favor of a whole-child "profile" compiled in the primary school years. School officials have abolished the exam in Essex, Leicester-

shire, and Manchester.

Proponents of the comprehensive secondary school see it as an imperative if education is to develop "parity of esteem" and essential "social unity" among the people. Through the broader program that comprehensive secondary schools offer, more young people not only would be attracted but retained so that the talents of the English youth would be more fully developed.

The opponents of the comprehensive secondary schools hold that there has been insufficient experimentation to demonstrate the desirability of it. They especially fear that standards would suffer as a result of catering to the average.

The secondary modern school has been England's answer to the demand for secondary education for all youth. Since it has been free from domination of external examination, it has been encouraged to develop programs based on the needs of youth and the resources and needs of the community. The secondary modern school ranks very high in experimentation.

However, the modern secondary school has drawbacks in that in many instances it has inadequate facilities, inadequate finances in comparison to the grammar schools.

England is making progress in her determination to see that higher education be open to all who qualify and wish to attend. Recommendations in the "Robbins Report" would establish six new universities, give university status to ten existing institutions, upgrade training courses from three to four years with the renaming of training colleges as Colleges of Education. Full-time higher

education enrollments of 216,000 in 1962-63 should rise to 300,000 in 1973-74 and to about 560,000 in 1980-81. Not only are these numbers to be provided for in an adequate manner, but the report insists that academic standards can be maintained.<sup>9</sup>

One can safely assume that once England has seen a need for more opportunities of education to be offered to her youth that the fierce determination for which she is noted will accomplish this goal in education. This movement in education has the staunch support of the Labor Party, and with the rise of the Labor Party education for all who qualify and who wish education would seem to be the inevitable future.

#### CONCLUSIONS

On the basis of the data considered in this study, the following conclusions appear to be in order:

1. England's educational arrangement has been the result of growth in which education has been shaped by changing circumstances and needs of successive generations.
2. The concern of English education until recently has been with the maintenance of society in the words of the old chapel prayer, "that there may never be wanting a succession of persons duly qualified to serve God in church and state."
3. Since 1902 England has recognized that all workers were entitled to education, not only those who needed education for careers.

---

<sup>9</sup>Robbins Report. Comparative Education Review, Vol. 8, #1, June, 1964. p. 113.

4. Since 1944 secondary education for all children has been provided. Prior to 1944 post-primary education had been considered a privilege.

5. Because the grammar school is the oldest type of secondary school, and because it is considered to have the most able as pupils, the grammar school has the most prestige among parents and students.

6. The 1944 Act improved the quality of technical schools so that more able students would go to them rather than into grammar school.

7. The public objection to the qualifying exam at eleven was social and political rather than educational.

8. It seems that the "eleven-plus" exam is definitely on the way out, and that the "profile" will succeed as the determinant.

9. England is making progress in seeing that as much education as each student wishes and can master is available.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

### Public Documents

Great Britain. British Information Services. Education in Britain.  
January, 1964.

### Books

Alexander, W. P. Education in England. New York: St Martin's  
Press, 1954.

Banks, Olive. Parity and Prestige in English Secondary Education.  
London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1955.

Beadle, Muriel. These Ruins Are Inhabited. Garden City, New York:  
Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1961

Botts, L. S. and Solomon, Jack Jr. Complete Handbook on Educational  
Systems. Chicago, Illinois: National Debate Research Co. 1958.

Dent, H. C. Education In Transition. New York: Oxford University  
Press, 1944.

Kerr, Anthony. Schools of Europe. Westminster, Maryland: The  
Canterbury Press, 1961.

King, Edmund James. Other Schools and Ours. New York: Rinehart  
and Co., Inc., 1958.

Livingstone, Sir Richard. On Education. Cambridge University Press,  
1954.

Roller, Theodore L. and Morphet, Edgar L. Comparative Educational  
Administration. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall,  
Inc., 1962

Ulich, Robert. The Education of Nations. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard  
University Press, 1961.

### Articles and Periodicals

Peters. A. J. "Published Sources for the Study of Contemporary British  
Further Education." British Journal of Educational Studies.  
XIII, No. 2. May, 1965

"Robbins Report." Comparative Education Review. VIII, No. 1, June, 1964.

Time. Time, Inc., March 13, 1964.